National Heart Attack Alert Program



Educational
Strategies To
Prevent Prehospital
Delay in Patients
at High Risk for
Acute Myocardial
Infarction





EDUCATIONAL

STRATEGIES TO

PREVENT PREHOSPITAL

DELAY IN PATIENTS AT

HIGH RISK FOR ACUTE

MYOCARDIAL

INFARCTION

NIH PUBLICATION

No. 97-3787

SEPTEMBER 1997

NATIONAL INSTITUTES

OF HEALTH

National Heart, Lung,

and Blood Institute

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ı	Page
Working Group on Educational Strategies To Prevent Prehospital Delay in Patients at High Risk for Acute Myocardial Infarction	V
National Heart Attack Alert Program Coordinating Committee Member Organizations	viii
Abstract	ix
Introduction	1
Educational Strategies To Prevent Prehospital Delay in Patients at High Risk for Acute Myocardial Infarction	3
Rationale for Targeting a High-Risk Group	3
Predictors of Prehospital Delay	3
Barriers and Access Issues	4
Availability	4
Accessibility	5
Accommodation	5
Affordability	6
Acceptability	6
Recommendations for High-Risk Patient Education	6
Whom To Educate	6
What To Tell High-Risk Patients	7
When and Where To Educate	10
How: Educational Techniques for Conveying the Message	10
Office Triage System	12
Economic, Legal, and Other Issues	12
Summary and Recommendations	13
References	16

National Heart Attack Alert Program Coordinating Committee

Working Group on Educational Strategies To Prevent Prehospital Delay in Patients at High Risk for Acute Myocardial Infarction

Kathleen Dracup, R.N., D.N.Sc. (Chair) L.W. Hassenplug Professor School of Nursing University of California at Los Angeles Los Angeles, California

Angelo A. Alonzo, Ph.D. Associate Professor of Sociology Ohio State University Columbus, Ohio

James M. Atkins, M.D., F.A.C.C.
Medical Director, Emergency Medicine Education
Professor of Internal Medicine
Department of Cardiology
University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center
at Dallas
Dallas, Texas

Nancy M. Bennett, M.D., M.S.
Assistant Professor of Community and Preventive Medicine
University of Rochester School of Medicine and Dentistry
Deputy Health Director
Monroe County Health Department
Rochester, New York

Allan Braslow, Ph.D. President Braslow and Associates Alexandria, Virginia Luther T. Clark, M.D.
Associate Professor of Clinical Medicine
Chief
Division of Cardiovascular Medicine
State University Hospital at Brooklyn Health
Science Center
Brooklyn, New York

Mickey Eisenberg, M.D., Ph.D. Professor of Medicine University of Washington Medical Center Seattle, Washington

Keith Copelin Ferdinand, M.D., F.A.C.C. Medical Director Heartbeats Life Center of New Orleans Associate Professor, Clinical Pharmacology College of Pharmacy Xavier University of New Orleans New Orleans, Louisiana

Robert Frye, M.D., F.A.C.C. Chair, Department of Internal Medicine Professor of Medicine Cardiovascular Consultant Mayo Clinic Rochester, Minnesota

Lee Green, M.D., M.P.H. Assistant Professor Department of Family Practice University of Michigan Medical School Ann Arbor, Michigan Martha N. Hill, Ph.D., R.N. Professor Center for Nursing Research Johns Hopkins University School of Nursing Baltimore, Maryland

J. Ward Kennedy, M.D.
Professor of Medicine
University of Washington
Director, Division of Cardiology
University Hospital
Seattle, Washington

Eva Kline-Rogers, M.S., R.N. Acute Care Nurse Practitioner Cardiology Department University of Michigan Medical Center Ann Arbor, Michigan

Debra K. Moser, D.N.Sc., R.N. Assistant Professor of Nursing College of Nursing Ohio State University Columbus, Ohio

Joseph P. Ornato, M.D., F.A.C.C.
Professor of Medicine (Cardiology) and
Emergency Medicine
Chair, Department of Emergency Medicine
Virginia Commonwealth University
Medical College of Virginia
Richmond, Virginia

Bertram Pitt, M.D. Professor of Internal Medicine Division of Cardiology University of Michigan Hospital Ann Arbor, Michigan

Jane D. Scott, Sc.D., M.S.N. Health Sciences Researcher National Study Center for Trauma and EMS University of Maryland School of Medicine Baltimore, Maryland Harry P. Selker, M.D., M.S.P.H.
Chief, Division of Clinical Care Research
Center for Cardiovascular Health Services
Research
New England Medical Center
Associate Professor of Medicine
Tufts University School of Medicine
Boston, Massachusetts

Sharron J. Silva, Ph.D. Evaluation Associate Public Policy and Planning American Red Cross National Headquarters Washington, D.C.

William Thies, Ph.D. Director Emergency Cardiac Care Programs American Heart Association Dallas, Texas

W. Douglas Weaver, M.D. Division Head, Cardiovascular Medicine Codirector, Heart and Vascular Institute Henry Ford Hospital Detroit, Michigan

Nanette K. Wenger, M.D.
Professor of Medicine
Division of Cardiology
Emory University School of Medicine
Consultant, Emory Heart Center
Director, Cardiac Clinics
Grady Memorial Hospital
Atlanta, Georgia

Suzanne K. White, R.N., M.N., C.N.A.A., F.A.A.N. Ernst and Young, LLP Atlanta, Georgia

Patient Representatives

Alan Jung, D.D.S. Baltimore, Maryland

Jane Lynn Severna Park, Maryland

NHLBI Staff

Mary M. Hand, M.S.P.H., R.N.
Coordinator, National Heart Attack Alert
Program
Office of Prevention, Education, and Control
National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute
National Institutes of Health
Bethesda, Maryland

Michael J. Horan, M.D., Sc.M. Director Division of Heart and Vascular Diseases National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute National Institutes of Health Bethesda, Maryland

Support Contract

John Clinton Bradley, M.S. R.O.W. Sciences, Inc. Rockville, Maryland

Pamela Christian, R.N., M.P.A. R.O.W. Sciences, Inc. Rockville, Maryland

Susan Shero, R.N., M.S. R.O.W. Sciences, Inc. Rockville, Maryland

Acknowledgments: The Working Group is grateful to Mary Pat Larsen, M.S., King County Department of Emergency Medical Services, Seattle, Washington, for her statistical support; Jane Lynn, Severna Park, Maryland, and Alan Jung, D.D.S., Baltimore, Maryland, for serving as patient representatives; and Patrice Desvigne-Nickens, M.D., Denise Simons-Morton, M.D., Ph.D., and George Sopko, M.D., National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland, for their scientific review and input.

National Heart Attack Alert Program Coordinating Committee

MEMBER ORGANIZATIONS

Agency for Health Care Policy and Research American Academy of Family Physicians American Academy of Insurance Medicine American Association for Clinical Chemistry, Inc. American Association of Critical Care Nurses American Association of Occupational Health Nurses

American College of Cardiology American College of Chest Physicians American College of Emergency Physicians American College of Occupational and Environmental Medicine

American College of Physicians American College of Preventive Medicine

American Heart Association
American Hospital Association
American Medical Association
American Nurses' Association, Inc.
American Pharmaceutical Association
American Public Health Association

American Red Cross

Association of Black Cardiologists Centers for Disease Control and Prevention

Department of Defense, Health Affairs

Department of Veterans Affairs

Emergency Nurses Association
Federal Emergency Management
Agency
Food and Drug Administration
Health Care Financing Administration
Health Resources and Services
Administration
International Association of Fire Chiefs
National Association of Emergency

Medical Technicians
National Association of EMS Physicians
National Association of State
Emergency Medical Services Directors

National Black Nurses' Association, Inc.
National Center for Health Statistics
National Heart, Lung, and Blood
Institute

National Highway Traffic Safety Administration

National Medical Association NHLBI Ad Hoc Committee on Minority Populations

Society for Academic Emergency Medicine

Society of General Internal Medicine

ABSTRACT

An estimated 13 million people in the United States have coronary heart disease (CHD), peripheral vascular disease, or cerebrovascular disease. The risk for subsequent myocardial infarction (MI) and death in these patients is fivefold to sevenfold higher than for the general population. Many effective therapies are now available for patients with unstable angina, acute myocardial infarction (AMI), potentially fatal arrhythmias, and cardiogenic shock, if they seek and receive care expeditiously. However, delays in accessing and receiving care are a continuing problem, threatening the effectiveness of available treatments. Patients with previously diagnosed CHD, including a previous MI, have the same or greater delay times as those without prior MI or CHD. Because of the high-risk status of these patients, combined with the problem of delay in seeking care, this Working Group of the National Heart Attack Alert Program Coordinating Committee advises physicians and other health care providers of their important role in reducing treatment delay in these patients. The Working Group recommends that primary care clinicians in the office and in inpatient set-

tings provide these patients and their family members or significant others with contingency counseling about actions to take in response to symptoms of an AMI. The counseling should address the emotional aspects (e.g., fear and denial) that patients and those around them may experience, as well as barriers that may be associated with the health care delivery system. Assistance from other health care providers (e.g., nurses) should be solicited to initiate, reinforce, and supplement the counseling. A Patient Advisory Form is offered as an aid to providers in counseling their high-risk patients about these issues. Other materials and aids should be considered as well. Physicians' offices and clinics should devise a system to triage patients rapidly when they call or walk in seeking advice for possible AMI symptoms. Further research is needed to learn more about effective counseling strategies, symptom manifestation in high-risk groups including the elderly, women, and minorities, and health care delivery systems that enhance access to timely care for patients with prior CHD or other clinical atherosclerotic disease.

Introduction

The National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute established the National Heart Attack Alert Program (NHAAP) with the goal of reducing morbidity and mortality rates for patients with acute myocardial infarction (AMI), including those with sudden cardiac death. One of the objectives of the program is to encourage physicians and other health care providers to educate their high-risk patients to seek immediate medical care when they experience symptoms suggestive of AMI or ischemia. A dramatic reduction in mortality has been demonstrated with early administration of thrombolytic therapy for AMI, an effect that has been documented in multiple, large, randomized clinical trials.¹⁻⁵ The consistent findings emphasize the major advantage of administration of thrombolytic drugs at the onset of symptoms of AMI accompanied by ST elevation. All studies have shown a time-dependent benefit of thrombolytic therapy. In many patients, administration of thrombolytic drugs within 1 hour of symptom onset results in little or no evidence of myocardial damage. 6-9 The Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction (TIMI) phase II trial found that for each hour earlier a patient was treated with thrombolytic therapy, there was a decrease in absolute mortality of 1 percent. This translates to approximately 10 lives saved for every 1,000 patients treated.¹⁰ An effect of time to treatment also has been observed in patients treated with primary angioplasty, 11 although more data are needed. Multiple effective interventions, including primary angioplasty, can be made available for early management of AMI, unstable angina, potentially fatal arrhythmias, and cardiogenic shock, if

patients and their families seek and receive care expeditiously.

Unfortunately, not all AMI patients receive the benefits of these dramatic advances in treatment. Recent data from a national registry of over 240,000 AMI patients revealed that only 35 percent of patients with a discharge diagnosis of AMI were treated with thrombolytic therapy. 12 Data from the National Registry of Myocardial Infarction¹² and from the TIMI 9 Registry¹³ indicate that those who do not receive a thrombolytic agent were also not treated aggressively with other drugs such as aspirin, beta blockers, and heparin, all shown to be effective in reducing AMI morbidity and mortality. Arrival at the hospital more than 6 hours after symptom onset and lack of STsegment elevation are frequently cited reasons for not administering a thrombolytic drug. 13-17

Studies document that the most common reason for treatment delay is the patient not seeking care promptly.¹⁸ The median time delay in seeking care after the onset of symptoms of AMI ranges from 2 to 6.4 hours.¹⁹ The median time delay to treatment in the National Registry of Myocardial Infarction was 2.2 hours. 12 Despite the potential benefit of early treatment, few patients are treated within the first 60 to 90 minutes. For example, only 3 percent of patients in the Global Utilization of Streptokinase and Tissue Plasminogen Activator for Occluded Coronary Arteries (GUSTO) trial, 20 3 percent in the TIMI phase II trial,²¹ and 10.9 percent in the Gruppo Italiano per lo Studio della Streptochinasi nell' Infarto Miocardico (GISSI) I trial¹ were treated within the first hour of symptom onset.

1

The primary objective of this report is to alert physicians and other primary care providers to their vital role in reducing morbidity and mortality from AMI in patients who have known cardiovascular disease and to suggest strategies useful in reducing patient delay. Data are lacking about what information is communicated to these patients regarding recognition and response to future acute ischemic events, which health care providers typically do the counseling, how often counseling is done, and the settings where counseling occurs. However, since health care providers frequently interact with patients at high risk for AMI and their families, they have the opportunity to provide counseling and other interventions to improve the patients' understanding of early symptoms of AMI and the need

for and benefits of prompt evaluation and treatment. The important role of physicians in influencing patient behavior has been well documented. Physicians also should elicit the counseling skills of nurses and other health care providers to complement and supplement their advice to patients and families.

This paper, based on the work of an NHAAP working group, describes (1) the high-risk patient population that providers should target for intervention, (2) predictors of patient delay, (3) issues of barriers and access to care, (4) recommendations for high-risk patient education about early recognition and response to AMI symptoms, (5) economic and legal issues surrounding early treatment, and (6) recommendations for research and practice.

EDUCATIONAL STRATEGIES TO PREVENT PREHOSPITAL DELAY IN PATIENTS AT HIGH RISK FOR ACUTE MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION

RATIONALE FOR TARGETING A HIGH-RISK GROUP

Ideally, education regarding the symptoms and signs of AMI and the need to seek treatment promptly should be directed to all individuals, which is a long-term goal of the NHAAP. However, in order to focus resources on patients who are most likely to need the information, educational and counseling interventions should be aimed at reducing patient delay for those individuals who are at high risk for a future AMI. Based on health interviews conducted in 1994, approximately 8 million Americans have coronary heart disease (CHD), about 3 million have cerebrovascular disease, and about 2 million have peripheral vascular disease.23 Patients with established CHD or clinical atherosclerotic disease of the aorta, peripheral arteries, or carotid arteries are at high risk for subsequent myocardial infarc-

tion (MI) or CHD death.²⁴⁻²⁶ About 50 percent of all MIs and at least 70 percent of CHD deaths occur in individuals with prior manifestations of cardiovascular disease.^{27,28} The risk for subsequent MI and death in patients with established CHD (or other atherosclerotic disease) is fivefold to sevenfold higher than for the general population.24

PREDICTORS OF PREHOSPITAL DELAY

Researchers have identified sociodemographic factors, clinical characteristics, and patient/ bystander behaviors associated with long prehospital delay times in seeking care for an AMI (Table 1). These findings can assist clinicians in identifying patients likely to delay and guide strategies that might be effective in reducing delay.

Table 1

FACTORS AFFECTING PREHOSPITAL DELAY IN PATIENTS WITH SYMPTOMS AND SIGNS OF ACUTE MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION

Factors Contributing to Increased Delay

Older age

Female gender

African-American race

Low socioeconomic status

Low emotional or somatic awareness

History of angina, diabetes, or both

Consulting a spouse or other relative

Consulting a physician

Self-treatment

Factors Contributing to Decreased Delay

Hemodynamic instability

Large infarct size

Sudden onset of severe chest pain

Recognition by patient that symptoms

are heart-related

Consulting a friend, coworker, or stranger

Certain sociodemographic characteristics, including older age^{17,29-34} and female gender,^{30,33,35-38} are associated with increased delay times in careseeking for AMI. Ethnicity/race have not been studied adequately. The majority of studies have involved Caucasian patients, but the few studies conducted focusing on ethnic and racial groups indicate delays in care-seeking may be considerably greater in African-Americans. 35,36,39 For example, Clark and colleagues³⁶ found African-Americans living in the inner city delayed an average of 11.9 hours before seeking medical treatment in a hospital emergency department. Delays also appear to increase with low socioeconomic status, 40,41 although this is not a consistent finding.42

Several clinical characteristics also affect delay time. Severe chest pain is associated with reduced delay times but only if it is sudden in onset^{35,38} or accompanied by hemodynamic instability.^{29,33} Patients with severe chest pain of gradual onset do not respond quicker than patients with less severe pain, possibly because they accommodate to the pain's gradual onset.29,43 Similarly, patients with a history of anginal pain or diabetes are more likely to delay than patients without these conditions. 30,33,44-46 A striking finding across all studies is that patients already diagnosed with CHD, heart failure, or previous MI have the same or greater delay times as those without prior MI or CHD.^{17,19} The fact that patients know they have heart disease, or have experienced a previous AMI, does not appear to translate to quicker action. This emphasizes the need to focus attention on this high-risk group.

Since identification of social, demographic, or clinical characteristics alone does not explain the reasons why people delay, some investigators have explored the relationship between selected personality characteristics and delay, although definitive conclusions cannot yet be drawn. Kenyon and colleagues⁴⁷ reported that patients with low awareness of or sensitivity to emotions or bodily sensations were at risk for extremely

long delays compared with those patients who were more capable of identifying their emotions or sensations. Studies of the effects of Type A/Type B personality on delay present inconsistent findings.^{48,49}

Finally, the role of physicians and other health care providers, family members/significant others, and friends in helping patients make decisions to come to an emergency department is an important determinant of patient delay. The majority of patients consult someone, either a layperson or a physician, prior to calling 9-1-1 or taking other transportation to the hospital. 35,50 If patients call a physician, delay times are significantly increased. 35,45,46,51,52 Physicians and other health care providers may not be readily available at the time of the call. Office staff or telephone services try to reach them or give advice and assurance, thereby increasing delay. If patients consult a friend, coworker, or stranger, they come to the emergency department more quickly than if they consult a family member/significant other. 35,53

BARRIERS AND ACCESS ISSUES

Access to care facilitates, and barriers to care impede, timely presentation by patients with known CHD whose symptoms suggest AMI. Access to care can be viewed across the five dimensions described by Penchansky and Thomas:⁵⁴ availability, accessibility, accommodation, affordability, and acceptability. Educational messages for patients experiencing symptoms of AMI should address these five dimensions. Whenever possible, physicians and other health care providers should identify an individual patient's health care system barriers and personalize the educational information.

Availability

Fundamental to access to care is the presence of appropriate diagnostic and therapeutic services at a nearby hospital. These services include 24-hour emergency departments with equipment and trained personnel. Most hospitals do not have cardiac catheterization facilities, but these hospitals

can care for acute CHD patients if well-specified consultation and referral arrangements have been made with more extensively equipped and staffed facilities.⁵⁵

Although most hospitals can provide the appropriate therapy, the time delay between initial presentation and treatment, particularly the delay until initiation of thrombolytic therapy, represents an area for continuous quality improvement efforts by many hospitals. Rural areas served by small hospitals may face particular difficulties in providing the necessary services because the personnel trained to make a rapid diagnosis of AMI and initiate emergency treatment, including thrombolytic therapy, may not be as readily available. 56

Accessibility

An emergency medical services (EMS) system that responds quickly and effectively to stabilize and transport the patient to the emergency department is crucial. Regardless of EMS system design, all communities should have adequate EMS coverage with advanced life support (ALS)-trained personnel and ALS-equipped vehicles to ensure a rapid response to all priority emergency calls. However, EMS systems across the United States are heterogeneous, and responsibility for ensuring standardization is variable.⁵⁷

There are potential barriers to rapid care of cardiac patients created by the insurer. Health maintenance organizations (HMOs) and other managed care provider organizations strive to decrease inappropriate uses of medical resources through, for example, the use of gatekeepers and primary care physicians (rather than specialists). However, there is the potential for these requirements to become barriers that delay care of the acute cardiac patient when rapid care is appropriate. Health care payers must strive to minimize or prevent delays when rapid care is needed. Use of 9-1-1 and prehospital emergency medical services is a proper usage of resources when a patient has a suspected acute coronary syndrome (e.g., chest pain, marked dyspnea, diaphoresis,

cardiac arrest). Health care payers or insurers need to develop their plans and protocols carefully to ensure rapid access for the acute cardiac patient.

Other barriers to access are those associated with low socioeconomic status and lack of health insurance. Low-income and minority patients (two groups with substantial overlap) have a disproportionate share of both CHD prevalence and poor outcomes of CHD events.58,59 It is often hypothesized that access problems may contribute to this finding. 60,61 Lack of telephone and transportation services may be factors. 40,62 However, some of the greater delay time among minority patients appears to be related to other factors. The greater percentage of CHD deaths occurring out of hospital in blacks versus whites may relate to patient behavior, access to or use of the EMS system, or variations in disease manifestations or treatment.63

Accommodation

Accommodation refers to patients' perception of the responsiveness of the health care system to their symptoms. An important issue related to accommodation in the changing health care system is restriction of emergency department use by third-party payers. The high unit costs of emergency department visits and the rate of inappropriate use of the emergency department for nonemergent care, such as colds and minor injuries, make these services priorities for cost control in health plans. Cost controls may be implemented by requiring patients to contact either their primary care physician or an authorization service telephone number before proceeding to the emergency department.⁶⁴ This is a concern for patients with a possible AMI because contacting a personal physician can more than double the delay in receiving appropriate emergency department care for AMI. 19,57,65,66 In the face of persistent symptoms, AMI patients should seek care in the emergency department, not seek advice from physicians or other health care personnel. Contacting medical care personnel other than EMS is a deterrent to rapid care. 67,68 It is

unlikely that a health plan would deny emergency department authorization to a patient with known CHD or other atherosclerotic disease, who has acute ischemic symptoms. However, delays introduced by prior authorization requirements potentially may be great enough to reduce the number of patients potentially eligible for thrombolysis.

Third-party payers, HMOs, and other managed care organizations must continue to allow CHD patients with symptoms of AMI to call EMS rather than a physician or an individual functioning as a gatekeeper. Almost all HMOs and other managed care organizations have written policies distinguishing between life-threatening and nonlife-threatening emergencies and waive prior authorization for life-threatening conditions.69 However, the definition of "life-threatening" may not be clear to patients, and the potential exists that the implementation of the policy may be weighted toward denying reimbursement to patients who seek care for cardiac symptoms for whom AMI is subsequently ruled out. HMO patients with preexisting cardiovascular disease who are acutely symptomatic should be permitted to access emergency departments directly and should be explicitly informed of this access option. Additional research is needed to document health care insurer variables that are associated with increased or decreased patient delays in accessing and obtaining timely care for patients with symptoms and signs of an AMI.

Affordability

Affordability is a concern for all patients but especially for low-income patients who cannot pay out of pocket and are more likely to be uninsured or underinsured. Affordability appears to be a major barrier to receipt of primary care and preventive services, possibly contributing to the greater burden of CHD among low-income patients. 40,58

Acceptability

Poor acceptability of health care services is a concern particularly for minority patients. Hospital

and emergency department facilities available to urban minority populations are often inadequate or unpleasant. Long waiting times may be a major deterrent to seeking care. 72 Also, cultural and linguistic differences between minority patients (especially Hispanic immigrant and Native American populations) and health care providers and institutions may reduce the acceptability of providers to such patients. These barriers may cause patients to delay seeking care from providers to whom they do not relate well and reduce the effectiveness of those providers in educating patients at high risk.⁶¹ Similarly, language differences may make patients who do not speak English hesitant to seek care when they have acute symptoms.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR HIGH-RISK PATIENT EDUCATION

Physicians and other health care providers preparing to educate their high-risk patients will need to consider **whom** to educate, **what** to tell them, **when and where** to deliver the information, and **how** best to present the message about early recognition and response to AMI symptoms. All instructions should be entered in the patient's record so other members of the health care team can reinforce them during future visits.

Whom To Educate

Providers should focus their educational efforts on patients with established CHD or clinical atherosclerotic disease of the aorta, arteries to the limbs, or the carotid arteries. Patients with established CHD include patients with definite clinical or laboratory evidence of MI or ischemia or history of coronary artery bypass surgery, coronary angioplasty, or related procedures. In addition, patients with peripheral arterial disease (e.g., patients with an abdominal aortic aneurysm or clinical signs and symptoms of ischemia to the extremities) should be targeted. Substantial carotid atherosclerosis is documented by cerebral symptoms (e.g., patients with transient ischemic attacks or stroke) and demonstration of significant atherosclerosis on ultrasound or angiogram.73

Patient Advisory Form Instructions for Use

Background:

This form is designed to be used by physicians and other health care providers to teach high-risk patients about heart attack symptoms and appropriate steps for rapid action. "High-risk" patients are defined as individuals with existing or "known" cardiovascular disease. This includes patients with known coronary heart disease, or clinical atherosclerotic disease of the aorta, peripheral arteries, or carotid arteries. This group of patients has a 5 to 7 times greater risk of subsequent myocardial infarction and sudden death than the general population.

Note about use: This form is not copyrighted. You may duplicate as many copies as you need.

Instructions:

Go over the form with your high-risk patients, filling in the blanks so that it is tailored for them.

As you review the form with your patients, you may also wish to address the emotional and social barriers that may contribute to patient delay in the event of a heart attack. These include:

- the tendency to attribute heart attack symptoms to less serious, noncardiac causes (e.g., indigestion)
- the tendency to wait to see if symptoms will go away
- the tendency to self-medicate (e.g., to take an antacid)
- the tendency to seek advice from family, friends, and coworkers
- the tendency to call one's physician
- a reluctance to use the emergency medical services system

Advise your patients that, in the event of heart attack symptoms, they should wait no longer than 15 minutes before calling the emergency medical services system (9-1-1 in most cases). The reward of acting quickly and getting definitive treatment before irreversible myocardial damage occurs should be underscored.

Suggest that your patients keep the completed form on their refrigerator or with their other emergency numbers, as well as keep a copy at work.

Keep a copy of the completed form in your patients' medical records so it can be reinforced by other health care providers at future visits.

Reference:

Dracup et al. Working Group on Educational Strategies to Prevent Prehospital Delay in Patients at High Risk for Acute Myocardial Infarction. The physician's role in minimizing prehospital delay in patients at high risk for acute myocardial infarction: Recommendations from the National Heart Attack Alert Program. Ann Intern Med 1997; 126: 645-651.

The National Heart Attack Alert Program welcomes your feedback on the effectiveness of this tool and suggestions for improving it. Comments may be sent to the NHAAP Coordinator at 301-402-1051 (fax) or the address below:



NATIONAL HEART ATTACK ALERT PROGRAM



NATIONAL HEART, LUNG, AND BLOOD INSTITUTE NHLBI Information Center P.O. Box 30105 Bethesda, MD 20824-0105 (301) 251-1222

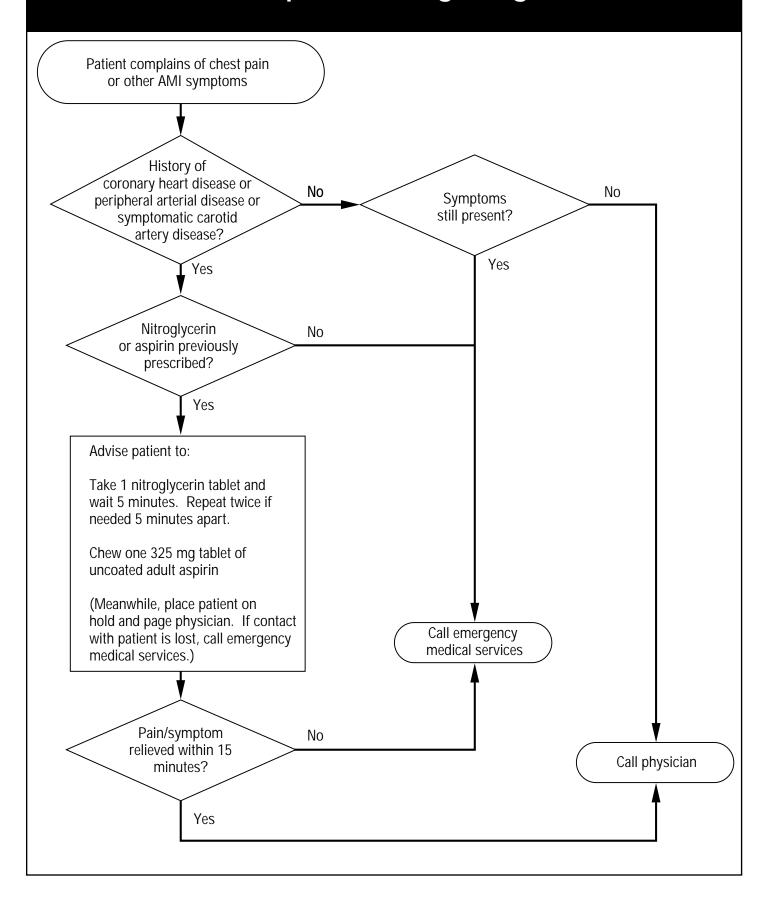
What To Do If You Have One or More Heart Attack Warning Signs

Patient's Name:	nents that can stop heart attacks and lessen damage to the heart. To make sure you
	ments, you need to act promptly if you begin to experience symptoms that might signal
	1. This is what you may feel:
	Chest pain, discomfort, or pressure
	Left arm pain or discomfort
	 Pain radiating to your neck or jaw
901	 Shortness of breath
	• Sweating
	 Upset stomach
	 Discomfort in the area between your breastbone and navel
	 A sense of dread
	• Other:
UNCOATED	2. Medication instructions:
M SE SAKWI	 Chew one 325 mg tablet of uncoated adult aspirin.
	 Place one tablet of nitroglycerin under your tongue as soon as you feel discomfort. Take a second tablet if the discomfort does not go away in 5 minutes. Take a third tablet after 5 more minutes if the discomfort does not go away.
	• Other:
	3. If the symptoms stop, call your physician at:
	4. If symptoms continue for more than 15 minutes, call the emergency medical services phone number below immediately. (Often this is 9-1-1, but you should check to make sure.) Never wait longer than 15 minutes. At home, the emergency phone number is:
The state of the s	At work, the emergency phone number is:
	At, the emergency phone number is:
	5. Know the location of the nearest 24-hour emergency department. At home, the closest emergency department is: At work, the closest emergency department is: At, the closest emergency department is:
	Place this form next to the phone, near your other emergency numbers!

____M.D./ R.N.

Signed:

Office Telephone Triage Algorithm



Telephone Triage Algorithm Instructions for Use

Background: This algorithm is designed to be used by physicians as a template for an office protocol for

answering telephone calls (or receiving walk-ins) from patients complaining of chest pain or

other possible heart attack symptoms.

Note about use: This algorithm is not copyrighted. You may duplicate as many copies as you need.

Instructions: All office staff members (particularly receptionists or others with whom the patient is likely to have initial contact) should be provided with a checklist of heart attack symptoms and

advised about the need for rapid, appropriate action.

Practitioners should provide staff with clear instructions and training about actions to take when a patient with heart attack symptoms calls or walks into the office seeking advice. It is critical that precious time is not wasted while the staff member tries to contact a physician who is temporarily unavailable. If the physician is not immediately available, staff should connect the patient directly to the emergency medical services system (9-1-1 in most locations) if the office telephone system has this capability or staff should instruct the patient (or a family member or friend with the patient) to call the emergency medical services system.

A continuous quality improvement approach should be part of any office/clinic-based triage system (e.g., with a log sheet for calls about chest pain). These data should be reviewed on a regular basis, modifications made to the procedures when the data so indicate, and the system again reevaluated.

The National Heart Attack Alert Program welcomes your feedback on the effectiveness of this tool and suggestions for improving it. Comments may be sent to the NHAAP Coordinator at 301-402-1051 (fax) or the address below:





NHLBI Information Center P.O. Box 30105 Bethesda, MD 20824-0105 (301) 251-1222 Finally, those patients who are likely to delay should be particularly targeted. These are the elderly, 17,29-34 women, 30,33,35-38 minorities, 35,36,39 those of low socioeconomic status, 40,41 as well as patients with a history of angina or diabetes, 30,33,44-46 and patients with known CHD including heart failure or prior MI.17,19

What To Tell High-Risk Patients

The educational message providers must convey to patients includes three essential components: information, emotional issues, and social factors. Patients should be given *information* about the typical symptoms of AMI and the actions to take if they experience those symptoms.

Although the presentation of AMI can be atypical, 74,75 the majority of patients will present with chest pain/discomfort, left arm pain/heaviness, shortness of breath, or a feeling of dread. The differences in presentation profiles, if any, between

patients with a CHD history and those presenting for the first time are not well delineated. An analysis of 1,027 patients with a confirmed MI and a history of angina or previous MI, from the Myocardial Infarction Triage and Intervention (MITI) Trial for the year 1992, revealed that patients presented with one or more of the following symptoms: chest pain that may have radiated to the arm, neck, or jaw, 90 percent; dyspnea, 47 percent; diaphoresis, 45 percent; nausea, 34 percent; congestive heart failure, 22 percent; epigastric discomfort/complaints, 9 percent; syncope, 4 percent; cardiac arrest, 4 percent; shock, 1 percent; and coma, 0.29 percent (Table 2). A slightly lower percentage of women in this group presented with diaphoresis and chest pain compared with men. A greater percentage of women presented with symptoms of congestive heart failure, nausea, and to a lesser extent, dyspnea (King County, Washington, 1995, unpublished data).

Table 2

KING COUNTY PATIENTS WITH CONFIRMED MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION* AND HISTORY OF CORONARY HEART DISEASE \$\frac{1}{2}\$: SYMPTOMS \$\frac{1}{2}\$ BY PERCENT PRESENTING

	Percent			
Symptoms	AII (n=1,027)	Males (n=683)	Females (n=344)	
Chest pain	90	91	89	
Dyspnea	47	46	49	
Diaphoresis	45	46	42	
Nausea	34	32	39	
Congestive heart failure	22	18	29	
Epigastric	9	9	8	
Syncope	4	4	5	
Cardiac arrest	4	4	5	
Shock	1	1	1	
Coma	0.29	0.29	0.29	

^{*} All cases

Source: King County, Washington, 1995, unpublished data

[‡] History of angina or MI

[†] Combined

Providers should keep in mind that presenting symptoms of AMI in the elderly may be vague. Older patients more often have a history of hypertension, congestive heart failure, and MI, as well as longer delay times, than younger patients. Among 1,848 patients over 65 years of age from the MITI Trial, a higher proportion of these elderly individuals had no chest pain when first evaluated in the hospital, and fewer elderly patients had ST elevation on the initial electrocardiogram.³⁴

Clark et al.³⁶ found that minority patients have lower levels of symptom recognition and belief in treatability. And according to Raczynski et al.,⁷⁷ African-American inpatients admitted for CHD reported fewer painful symptoms and were more likely to attribute symptoms to noncardiac origins (e.g., gastrointestinal tract).

Since many patients believe that an AMI is accompanied by sudden, crushing chest pain and unconsciousness, ⁷⁸ patients should be told that the symptoms may come on gradually or may be intermittent. The educational message should be adapted to an individual patient's history of symptom presentation; for example, the physician can emphasize jaw discomfort if this symptom occurred in the past as part of the patient's ischemic presentation. However, all of the more frequent presenting symptoms should be addressed since a second heart attack may not manifest itself exactly the same way as the first (something patients should also be told, even though this has not been well studied).

Patients must be clear about the actions they should take if AMI symptoms occur, including taking nitroglycerin (if prescribed), taking aspirin, and calling EMS. Advice about medications should be tailored to the needs of individual patients. The guideline for the use of nitrates for anginal pain published by the Agency for Health Care Policy and Research Guideline Panel⁷⁹ appears sound. Patients are directed to take one nitroglycerin tablet as soon as they feel discomfort, take a second tablet if the discomfort does not go away in 5 minutes, and take a third tablet

after 5 more minutes if symptoms persist. If the medication does not relieve the discomfort in 15 minutes, they should go to the hospital immediately by activating EMS. Because of aspirin's demonstrated benefit in the case of an acute ischemic event,³ patients should additionally be advised to chew an adult-strength (325 mg), noncoated aspirin tablet when symptoms present.

Activation of EMS shortens delay for almost all patients with suspected AMI;80 therefore, highrisk patients and their families should be told to call 9-1-1 or their seven-digit emergency number when a patient has symptoms suggestive of AMI. If a patient lives in a rural area or is a long distance from the nearest hospital, the health care provider should discuss the merits of alternative plans. Having a family member or friend drive is not recommended because the person driving the patient cannot render any patient care and usually cannot communicate with the hospital while en route. Patients should never drive themselves due to the potential of cardiac arrest. Arrival at the emergency department by private vehicle has been shown to delay triage and assessment of AMI patients compared with patients conveyed by EMS.81 For the AMI patient, prehospital identification by history or electrocardiogram has been shown to decrease time to treatment in the emergency department.8,67

A sample form for presenting patient information is presented in Figure 1. It can be individualized by physicians and other health care providers to include any unusual symptoms a patient may experience suggesting an evolving AMI, instructions for any special medications such as nitrates or aspirin that the patient may need, the EMS phone number in the community, and the location of the hospital with 24-hour emergency department service closest to the patient's home and work. Physicians and other health care providers can suggest that patients keep the form on their refrigerators or with their other emergency numbers, as well as keep a copy at work. The selected message regarding expected symptoms and recommended action steps should also

Signed: ___

PATIENT ADVISORY FORM

Patient's Name:		can stop heart attacks and lessen damage to the heart.	To make sure you can benefit from these
		if you begin to experience symptoms that might signal a	
	1.	This is what you may feel:	
		Chest pain, discomfort, or pressure	
		 Left arm pain or discomfort 	
	·	 Pain radiating to your neck or jaw 	
		 Shortness of breath 	
		• Sweating	
		 Upset stomach 	
000		• Discomfort in the area between your breastbo	one and navel
		 A sense of dread 	
		• Other:	
UNCOATED	2.	Medication instructions:	
		Chew one 325 mg tablet of uncoated adult at	spirin.
		Place one tablet of nitroglycerin under your t	•
		discomfort. Take a second tablet if the discor	mfort does not go away in
		5 minutes. Take a third tablet after 5 more r	minutes if the discomfort
TO.		does not go away.	
		• Other:	
Coop	3.	If the symptoms stop, call your physician a	at:
	4.	If symptoms continue for more than 15 m	inutes, call the emergency
		medical services phone number below imp	- · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
and the state of t		but you should check to make sure.) Neve	-
The state of the s		At home, the emergency phone number is:	
		At work, the emergency phone number is:	
		At	, the emergency phone number is
THE THE PARTY OF T	5.	Know the location of the nearest 24-hou	
		At home, the closest emergency department is:	
		At work, the closest emergency department is: At	
A 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1			

_M.D./ R.N.

be recorded in the patient's medical record so it can be reinforced by other health care providers in the setting.

The second component of the message relates to the *emotional issues* surrounding the AMI experience that may contribute to delay behaviors. Recent research suggests a significant amount of delay is related to patients' beliefs that the symptoms are not serious and attributing them to a noncardiac cause. 50,68,77,81 It is quite natural to reduce anxiety about cardiac symptoms by searching for a cause less threatening than AMI. Patients and their families need assistance in anticipating this defense and recognizing that denial of the serious nature of symptoms contributes to treatment delay.

The provider also needs to ascertain whether the patient/family members/significant others have had prior negative experiences related to seeking care for a potential acute health problem, especially if it was cardiac in nature. If so, this should be noted and addressed.

To balance the aversive nature of the educational message, patients should be told about the efficacy of pharmacologic thrombolysis and other interventions for AMI. The reward of acting quickly and getting definitive treatment before irreversible myocardial damage occurs must be underscored. Positive messages about the salvage of cardiac muscle and survival when treatment begins rapidly are potentially more effective than negative messages about delay and the possibility of sudden death.

The third component of the message involves *social factors* surrounding the decision to seek treatment. The majority of patients consult a family member/significant other about their symptoms. 35,50 Family members/significant others should be included in all education and counseling and have a good understanding of the nature of AMI symptoms and the importance of calling EMS quickly. If interested, family members/significant others can be referred to an appropriate class on cardiopulmonary resuscitation where much of this information will be rein-

forced. They should be advised that patients will typically want to ascribe their symptoms to a noncardiac cause and that bystanders must take responsibility for calling EMS.

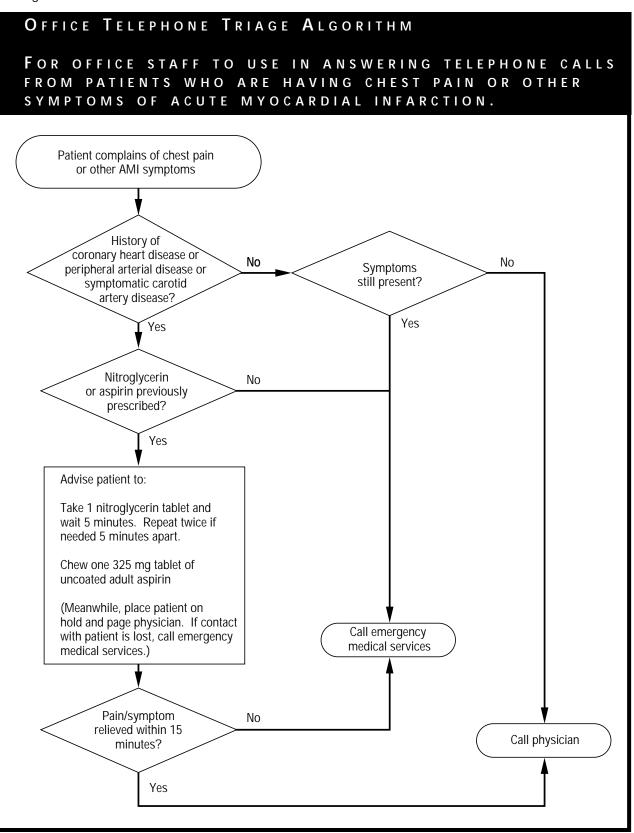
When and Where To Educate

The main arena for teaching should be the practitioner's office. Education and counseling should also occur during a patient's hospitalization for CHD, including reiterating the message with discharge instructions, and then further reinforcing the educational message in the outpatient setting and in other health care settings (e.g., by the cardiac rehabilitation nurse or the community pharmacist). Clearly, no single intervention, no matter how carefully designed, will be sufficient. Counseling needs to occur repetitively throughout the high-risk patient's course of treatment. The key to achieving behavioral change is to deliver a simple, consistent message repeatedly in a variety of settings.^{22,82} This process not only increases knowledge—it can also effectively change behavior.

How: Educational Techniques for Conveying the Message

One-on-one instruction is the basic mechanism for delivery of the educational message. All health care providers caring for the same patient should give the same message, and the physician may want to discuss/communicate the content of the message with allied care providers, to promote consistency. Physicians should elicit the counseling skills of nurses and other care providers to complement their advice to patients and families. All verbal instruction should be accompanied by written information that addresses symptom recognition, appropriate steps to take, the emergency telephone number (if this is not 9-1-1), and the location of the closest emergency department to the patient's home and work. Written material should be developed at a sixth-grade level to ensure the material is understood.83 In addition to the Patient Advisory Form (Figure 1), pamphlets and wallet cards on this topic are available from the American Heart Association.

Figure 2



One strategy to deal with the anticipated denial patients experience as part of the emotional response is rehearsal. Since symptoms can increase anxiety, patients should be encouraged to rehearse their response to a possible AMI at less stressful times so that the reaction becomes automatic. 84-86 Just as individuals practice disaster drills in the work setting or rehearse actions in case of a home fire, reviewing feelings and optimal behaviors in response to AMI symptoms increases the likelihood the appropriate steps will be taken despite an intense emotional reaction.

Although video or interactive computer programs should never replace one-on-one instruction, supplementary means of delivering the educational message regarding symptoms and action steps can be effective reinforcement.82 A video message may prove ideal for use in hospital-based education, particularly in the hospital-specific video networks supplying information and entertainment to patients. A series of very short messages could be interspersed with normal programming to give the patient repeated exposures to this message. Interactive computer programs geared to patients with CHD augment other educational strategies. Such programs can be used in the hospital as well as in outpatient clinics, physician offices, and patients' homes.

This instruction can be part of a comprehensive secondary prevention effort in patients with previously established CHD. Information about symptom recognition and appropriate action can also be combined with reassurance concerning prognosis and without raising the level of anxiety about each episode of chest discomfort.⁸⁷

Office Triage System

Finally, all office staff members (particularly receptionists or others with whom the patient is likely to have initial contact) should understand and support the educational program discussed here. Practitioners should provide clear instructions and training to the staff about actions to take when a patient with possible acute cardiac

symptoms calls or walks into the office seeking advice. Precious time must not be wasted while the staff member tries to contact a physician who is temporarily unavailable. Just as emergency department personnel have a responsibility to examine the barriers to rapid triage and treatment of AMI patients, the physician (or policymaking committee in a managed care setting) must devise a triage system to quickly identify such patients and refer them to the EMS system. An algorithm for telephone triage may help guide staff members in identifying patients who need emergency referral (Figure 2). (Note: These same principles can be applied to walk-in patients if a physician is not available.) Also, a continuous quality improvement approach should be part of any office/clinic-based triage system whereby information is collected about the explicit triage and referral processes (e.g., using a log sheet for calls about chest pain). These data are then reviewed on a regular basis, modifications to the procedures are made when the data so indicate, and the system is again reevaluated.

ECONOMIC, LEGAL, AND OTHER ISSUES

The NHAAP is designed to educate patients to seek immediate emergency medical care when experiencing symptoms suggestive of AMI or ischemia. This program was launched in 1991; its efforts to educate health professionals, patients, and eventually the public about early recognition of and response to symptoms and signs of an AMI and acute ischemia are occurring at a time when the medical care system in the United States is undergoing tumultuous change designed to reduce the use of expensive and technically advanced medical care in favor of primary care and prevention. At the same time, the changing manner in which health care is being delivered and reimbursed is evolving toward the dominance of large HMOs and managed care organizations that control cost, in part, by closely monitoring and controlling access to care.

An important aspect of these cost-containment programs is reduction in the use of emergency

departments for the management of nonemergency illnesses, as noted previously. Specific guidelines need to be developed to protect the unencumbered access of patients at risk for AMI to emergency evaluation and care without the threat of nonpayment from their insurance carrier or health plan when it is determined they do not have myocardial ischemia or infarction. If this cannot be accomplished throughout the country, the threat to patients of large emergency department bills not paid by insurance is likely to limit the effectiveness of any educational effort directed toward reducing delay to treatment and improving care for patients with acute cardiac ischemia.

By directing educational efforts initially toward patients with cardiovascular disease, the number of unnecessary emergency department visits will likely be limited. However, any broad-based community educational program undertaken to educate individuals with symptoms of AMI to seek early medical care will increase the number of patients in emergency departments who have noncardiac chest pain,88-90 although the size of this increase will depend on the specific message of the program. Research is currently under way to examine the effectiveness of public education and community intervention strategies in reducing AMI delay.91 The systematic evaluation of new triage strategies, which may help avoid costly admissions to coronary care units to rule out AMI, should be encouraged. Tests identifying myocardial necrosis earlier in the course of infarction are currently being developed and may reduce the time patients need to be kept under medical observation.92-94 It should also be noted that patients with a known history of CHD presenting to the emergency department with chest pain and who are discharged from the emergency department have a subsequent cardiovascular disease mortality similar to that of patients discharged following hospitalization for angina or MI.95 Therefore, risk stratification needs to be done in these individuals at the time of evaluation in the emergency department or subsequently. Finally, patients with a history of cardiovascular disease who present to the emergency department with chest pain and are discharged from the emergency department should be given a clear recommendation to follow up with their personal physician about the episode.

As noted, minority populations of the inner city have long delays between symptom onset and time of arrival at the emergency department. Many of these patients have no regular physician and, if they are followed at all, receive care in hospital clinics and neighborhood family care centers. Therefore, consideration should be given to counseling high-risk patients in these settings about symptom recognition and appropriate response, and to using simple messages and appropriate education tools. Clinics and neighborhood family care centers should also have appropriate triage systems.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Patients who receive medical attention early in the course of AMI have a reduced mortality compared with those treated later. 1,3,4,8,21 Since much of the emphasis on the management of AMI has centered on the use of thrombolytic therapy, there has been less discussion about the importance of other aspects of early care. The successful management of potentially fatal arrhythmias, including sustained ventricular tachycardia and ventricular fibrillation, and the care of patients with cardiogenic shock are both dependent on early and comprehensive treatment.^{9,55} These serious arrhythmias are often readily managed when they develop in a patient who is monitored in the ambulance, emergency department, or coronary care unit, whereas the same arrhythmias are often fatal when they occur before the patient obtains medical care. Accessing the EMS system provides earlier availability of a defibrillator, should one be needed, because there has been a national effort to encourage equipping of all firstresponding EMS vehicles with an automated external defibrillator.⁵⁷ The early use of other forms of therapy, including aspirin,³ beta blockers, emergency coronary artery angioplasty,

myocardial revascularization surgery, and the intra-aortic balloon pump, are often life saving in patients with AMI.^{21,55,96-99}

Thus, early management is important for all patients with AMI, not just for those who will receive thrombolytic therapy. Early medical therapy can be expected to reduce the morbidity and mortality of AMI, as compared with treatment initiated later in the course of the acute disease. In the short term, the reduction in infarct size as a result of early therapy will reduce the length and complexity of the remaining hospital course. Over the long term, this reduced morbidity will result in more individuals returning to active and productive lives.

Physicians and other health care providers play an important role in reducing the delay to evaluation and treatment. Patients with preexisting cardiovascular disease—CHD, atherosclerotic disease of the aorta or peripheral arteries, or carotid artery disease—are at high risk for a future AMI. This high-risk group needs to be told clearly what symptoms they might experience during a coronary occlusion, what steps to take, and to call EMS. They should be told about the importance of getting to an appropriate facility quickly, the treatment options available when presenting early, and the rewards of early treatment in terms of improved quality of life. These instructions need to be reviewed frequently and reinforced with appropriate written material and wallet cards (see Table 3).

No single intervention, no matter how carefully designed and implemented, will be sufficient to

alter the individual's propensity to delay. A consistent message, delivered regularly, is needed to ensure increased knowledge and appropriate behavioral change. Impediments to early treatment should be identified and, when possible, modified with an appropriate action plan. Family members/significant others should be included in all instruction since they play an important role in increasing or decreasing the time to treatment.

Further research is required to identify the social and cognitive factors influencing patients' decisions to seek treatment in the context of an evolving coronary occlusion, especially those with prior CHD or other atherosclerotic disease. More research is needed to better understand AMI symptom expression in those with previously established atherosclerotic disease, including expression as modified by gender, ethnicity/race, age, and comorbid conditions (e.g., diabetes). Cultural interpretation and expression of symptoms in high-risk patients and the general population need to be studied as well. Research is also needed on accurate identification of high-risk subgroups and documentation of the efficacy of recommended interventions. Controlled trials must be conducted to determine the most effective strategies for altering patient/family/ bystander behaviors contributing to treatment delay. Finally, barriers to rapid treatment within our current health care system must be identified, eliminated, and replaced with more effective and responsive systems to enhance access to timely care.

HIGH-RISK PATIENT ACTION PLAN: SUMMARY FOR PRIMARY CARE PROVIDERS

I. WHO

- A. High-risk patients are those with diagnosed CHD; also patients with clinical atherosclerotic disease of the aorta, arteries to the limbs, or carotid arteries. (This includes patients with previous MI or angina; patients who have had coronary angioplasty or coronary artery bypass surgery. Also consider at high risk patients with clinical symptoms and signs of peripheral vascular disease, or patients with transient ischemic attacks or stroke or demonstrated carotid atherosclerosis.)
- B. Keep in mind those who have been shown to be likely to delay: the elderly, women, minorities, those with low socioeconomic status, as well as those with a history of angina/CHD, diabetes, and heart failure.

II. WHAT TO DISCUSS

A. Information about:

- 1. Typical symptoms of an AMI
 - a. Chest discomfort/pain, possibly radiating to the arm, neck, or jaw
 - b. Shortness of breath
 - c. Sweating
 - d. Gastrointestinal complaints (nausea)
- 2. Expectations about symptoms
 - a. Symptoms may come on gradually or may be intermittent
 - b. A heart attack is not necessarily accompanied by sudden, crushing chest pain and unconsciousness
 - c. Patient's symptoms may or may not resemble prior symptoms
- 3. Action steps to take if experiencing symptoms
 - a. Take appropriate medications:
 - Nitroglycerin (if prescribed)
 - Aspirin (chew one 325 mg adult uncoated tablet)
 - Access EMS by calling emergency telephone number (9-1-1 or seven-digit emergency number) if the symptoms continue for more than 15 minutes
 - Know the location of the hospital with 24-hour emergency department service closest to the patient's home or work
- 4. Identify the potential health care system barriers that exist for the patient and personalize the information accordingly

B. Emotional aspects:

- There is a big reward for acting quickly and getting definitive treatment before irreversible myocardial damage occurs
- 2. Denial of the serious nature of symptoms contributes to treatment delay
- 3. Attribution of symptoms to a system other than cardiac is common, but contributes to delay
- 4. Prior negative experiences in seeking care need to be reconciled

C. Social aspects:

- Family members/significant others should be included in all education and counseling and have a good understanding of the nature of AMI symptoms and the importance of calling EMS quickly
- Family members/significant others should consider taking a CPR class
- 3. Family members/significant others have an important role in preventing patient denial and in facilitating the call to access EMS

III. WHEN AND WHERE (TO EDUCATE)

- A. Office/clinic visits
- B. Inpatient setting and at discharge
- C. Cardiac rehabilitation programs
- D. Community (e.g., home health nurse, pharmacist)

IV HOW

- A. Consider that one-on-one instruction is important
 - 1. Keep message simple and consistent
 - 2. Repeat message in a variety of settings
 - 3. Elicit counseling skills of nurses and other health care providers
- B. Use supplementary means of reinforcing the educational message about symptoms and action steps
 - Written materials (at approximately sixth-grade reading level)
 - 2. Patient advisory form
 - 3. Video
 - 4. Interactive computer programs
- C. Encourage patients to have a plan and to review/rehearse it periodically (Figure 1)
- D. Devise a system in office/clinic to triage and treat patients rapidly who may have an evolving AMI (e.g., algorithm—Figure 2)
- E. Office/clinic staff should understand and support triage system developed to handle patient calls/walk-ins with chest pain

REFERENCES

- GISSI (Gruppo Italiano per lo Studio della Streptochinasi nell'Infarto Miocardico).
 Effectiveness of intravenous thrombolytic treatment in acute myocardial infarction. Lancet 1986;1(8478):397-402.
- 2. GISSI (Gruppo Italiano per lo Studio della Streptochinasi nell'Infarto Miocardico). Longterm effects of intravenous thrombolysis in acute myocardial infarction: final report of the GISSI study. Lancet 1987;2(8564):871-874.
- Second International Study of Infarct Survival Collaborative Group (ISIS-2). Randomized trial of intravenous streptokinase, oral aspirin, both, or neither among 17,187 cases of suspected acute myocardial infarction: ISIS-2. J Am Coll Cardiol 1988;12(6 Suppl A):3A-13A.
- 4. Fibrinolytic Therapy Trialists' Collaborative Group. Indications for fibrinolytic therapy in suspected acute myocardial infarction: collaborative overview of early mortality and major morbidity results from all randomized trials of more than 1,000 patients. Lancet 1994;343:311-322.
- 5. Cannon CP, Antman EM, Walls R, Braunwald E. Time as an adjunctive agent to thrombolytic therapy. J Thrombosis Thrombolysis 1994;1:27-34.
- Berger PB, Bell MR, Holmes DR, Gersh BJ, Hopfenspirger M, Gibbons R. Time to reperfusion with direct coronary angioplasty and thrombolytic therapy in acute myocardial infarction. Am J Cardiol 1994;73:231-236.

- 7. Herlitz J, Hartford M, Aune S, Karlsson T, Hjalmarson A. Delay time between onset of myocardial infarction and start of thrombolysis in relation to prognosis. Cardiology 1993;82(5): 347-353.
- 8. Weaver WD, Cerqueira M, Hallstrom AP, Litwin PE, Martin JS, Kudenchuk PJ, Eisenberg M, for the Myocardial Infarction Triage and Intervention Project Group. Prehospital-initiated vs hospital-initiated thrombolytic therapy. The Myocardial Infarction Triage and Intervention Trial. JAMA 1993;270(10):1211-1216.
- National Heart Attack Alert Program
 Coordinating Committee, 60 Minutes to
 Treatment Working Group. Emergency department: rapid identification and treatment of
 patients with acute myocardial infarction. Ann
 Emerg Med 1994;23(2):311-329.
- Timm TC, Ross R, McKendall GR, Braunwald E, Williams DO, and the TIMI Investigators. Left ventricular function and early cardiac events as a function of time to treatment with t-PA: a report from TIMI II (abstract). Circulation 1991;84(4 Suppl II):II-230.
- 11. O'Keefe JH Jr, Rutherford BD, McConahay DR, Ligon RW, Johnson WL Jr, Giorgi LV, Crockett JE, McCallister BD, Conn RD, Gura GM Jr. Early and late results of coronary angioplasty without antecedent thrombolytic therapy for acute myocardial infarction. Am J Cardiol 1989;64(19):1221-1230.

- 12. Rogers WJ, Bowlby LJ, Chandra NC, French WJ, Gore JM, Lambrew CT, Rubison M, Tiefenbrunn AJ, Weaver WD, for the participants in the National Registry of Myocardial Infarction. Treatment of myocardial infarction in the United States (1990 to 1993). Observations from the National Registry of Myocardial Infarction. Circulation 1994;90:2103-2114.
- Cannon CP, Henry TD, Schweiger MJ, Haugland JM, McKendall GR, Shah PK, Gleason R, McCabe CH, Antman EM, Braunwald E. Current management of ST elevation myocardial infarction and outcome of thrombolytic ineligible patients: results of the multicenter TIMI 9 Registry (abstract). J Am Coll Cardiol 1995;(Special Issue):231A-232A.
- Lee TH, Weisberg MC, Brand DA, Rouan GW, Goldman L. Candidates for thrombolysis among emergency room patients with acute chest pain. Ann Intern Med 1989;110(12):957-962.
- 15. Muller DWM, Topol EJ. Selection of patients with acute myocardial infarction for thrombolytic therapy. Ann Intern Med 1990;113:949-960.
- Goldberg RJ, Gurwitz J, Yarzebski J, Landon J, Gore JM, Alpert JS, Dalen PM, Dalen JE. Patient delay and receipt of thrombolytic therapy among patients with acute myocardial infarction from a community-wide perspective. Am J Cardiol 1992;70:421-425.
- 17. Yarzebski J, Goldberg RJ, Gore JM, Alpert JS. Temporal trends and factors associated with extent of delay to hospital arrival in patients with acute myocardial infarction: The Worcester Heart Attack Study. Am Heart J 1994;128:255-263.
- Dracup K, Moser DK, Eisenberg M, Meischke H, Alonzo AA, Braslow A. Causes of delay in seeking treatment for heart attack symptoms. Soc Sci Med 1995;40:379-392.
- 19. Dracup K, Moser DK. Treatment-seeking behavior among those with signs and symptoms of acute myocardial infarction. Heart Lung 1991;20(5 Pt 2):570-575.

- GUSTO Investigators. An international randomized trial comparing four thrombolytic strategies for acute myocardial infarction. N Engl J Med 1993;329(10):673-682.
- 21. TIMI Study Group. Comparison of invasive and conservative strategies after treatment with intravenous tissue plasminogen activator in acute myocardial infarction: results of the Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction (TIMI) phase II trial. N Engl J Med 1989;320(10):618-627.
- Joos SK, Hickman DH. How health professionals influence health behavior: patient-provider interaction and health care outcomes. In: Glanz K, Lewis FM, Rimer BK (eds). Health Behavior and Health Education. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers, 1990.
- Adams PF, Marano MA. Current estimates from the National Health Interview Survey, 1994. National Center for Health Statistics. Vital Health Stat 10 (193), 1995.
- 24. Criqui MH, Langer RD, Fronek A, Feigelson HS, Klauber MR, McCann TJ, Browner D. Mortality over a period of 10 years in patients with peripheral arterial disease. N Engl J Med 1992;326(6): 381-386.
- Pekkanen J, Linn S, Heiss G, Suchindran CM, Leon A, Rifkind BM, Tyrolen HA. Ten-year mortality from cardiovascular disease in relation to cholesterol level among men with and without preexisting cardiovascular disease. N Engl J Med 1990;322(24):1700-1707.
- 26. Salonen JT, Salonen R. Ultrasonographically assessed carotid morphology and the risk of coronary heart disease. Arterioscler Thromb 1991;11(5):1245-1249.
- 27. Kannel WB, Schatzkin A. Sudden death: lessons from subsets in population studies. J Am Coll Cardiol 1985;5(6 Suppl):141B-149B.

- Kuller L, Perper J, Cooper M. Demographic characteristics and trends in arteriosclerotic heart disease mortality: sudden death and myocardial infarction. Circulation 1975;51(suppl):III-1-III-15.
- 29. Maynard C, Althouse R, Olsufka M, Ritchie JL, Davis KB, Kennedy JW. Early versus late hospital arrival for acute myocardial infarction in the Western Washington thrombolytic therapy trials. Am J Cardiol 1989;63(18):1296-1300.
- Meischke H, Eisenberg MS, Larsen MP.
 Prehospital delay interval for patients who use
 emergency medical services: the effect of heartrelated medical conditions and demographic variables. Ann Emerg Med 1993;22(1):1597-1601.
- 31. Moss AJ, Wynar B, Goldstein S. Delay in hospitalization during the acute coronary period. Am J Cardiol 1969;24(5):659-665.
- 32. Rawles JM, Haites NE. Patient and general practitioner delays in acute myocardial infarction. Br Med J 1988;296:882-884.
- 33. Turi ZG, Stone PH, Muller JE, et al. (and the MILIS Study Group). Implications for acute intervention related to time of hospital arrival in acute myocardial infarction. Am J Cardiol 1986;58(3):203-209.
- 34. Weaver WD, Litwin PE, Martin JS, et al. (MITI Project Group). Effect of age on use of thrombolytic therapy and mortality in acute myocardial infarction. J Am Coll Cardiol 1991;18(3):657-662.
- 35. Alonzo AA. The impact of the family and lay others on care-seeking during life-threatening episodes of suspected coronary artery disease. Soc Sci Med 1986;22(12):1297-1311.
- Clark LT, Bellam SV, Shah AH, Feldman JG. Analysis of prehospital delay among inner-city patients with symptoms of myocardial infarction: implications for therapeutic intervention. J Natl Med Assoc 1992;84(11):931-937.

- 37. Cunningham MA, Lee TH, Cooke EF, Brand DA, Rouan GW, Weisberg MC, Goldman L. The effect of gender on the probability of myocardial infarction among emergency department patients with acute chest pain: a report from the Multicenter Chest Pain Study Group. J Gen Intern Med 1989;4(5):392-398.
- 38. Schmidt SB, Borsch MA. The prehospital phase of acute myocardial infarction in the era of thrombolysis. Am J Cardiol 1990;65(22):1411-1415.
- 39. Cooper RS, Simmons B, Castaner A, Prasad R, Franklin C, Ferlinz J. Survival rates and prehospital delay during myocardial infarction among black persons. Am J Cardiol 1986;57:208-211.
- Ghali JK, Cooper RS, Kowatly I, Liao Y. Delay between onset of chest pain and arrival to the coronary care unit among minority and disadvantaged patients. J Natl Med Assoc 1993;85(3): 180-184.
- 41. EII K, Haywood LJ, Sobel E, deGuzman M, Blumfield D, Ning J. Acute chest pain in African Americans: factors in the delay in seeking emergency care. Am J Public Health 1994;84(6):965-970.
- 42. Crawford SL, McGraw SA, Smith KW, McKinlay JB, Pierson JE. Do blacks and whites differ in their use of health care for symptoms of coronary heart disease? Am J Public Health 1994;84(6): 957-964.
- 43. Hofgren K, Bondestam E, Johansson FG, Jern S, Herlitz J, Holmberg S. Initial pain course and delay to hospital admission in relation to myocardial infarct size. Heart Lung 1988;17(3):274-280.
- 44. Moss AJ, Goldstein S. The pre-hospital phase of acute myocardial infarction. Circulation 1970;41(5):737-742.

- Simon AB, Feinleib M, Thompson HK Jr. Components of delay in the pre-hospital phase of acute myocardial infarction. Am J Cardiol 1972;30:476-482.
- Schroeder JS, Lamb IH, Hu M. The prehospital course of patients with chest pain: analysis of the prodromal, symptomatic, decision-making, transportation and emergency room periods. Am J Med 1978;64:742-748.
- 47. Kenyon LW, Ketterer MW, Gheorghiade M, Goldstein S. Psychological factors related to prehospital delay during acute myocardial infarction. Circulation 1991;84(5):1969-1976.
- 48. Wielgosz ATJ, Nolan RP, Earp JA, Biro E, Wielgosz MB. Reasons for patients' delay in response to symptoms of acute myocardial infarction. Can Med Assoc J 1988;139:853-857.
- 49. Matthews KA, Siegel JM, Kuller LH, Thompson M, Varat M. Determinants of decisions to seek medical treatment by patients with symptoms. J Pers Soc Psychol 1983;44(6):1144-1156.
- 50. Reilly A, Dracup K, Dattolo J. Factors influencing prehospital delay in patients experiencing chest pain. Am J Crit Care 1994;3(4):300-306.
- Leitch JW, Birbara T, Freedman B, Wilcox I, Harris PJ. Factors influencing the time from onset of chest pain to arrival at hospital. Med J Aust 1989;150:6-10.
- 52. Gray D, Keating NA, Murdock J, Skene AM, Hampton JR. Impact of hospital thrombolysis policy on out-of-hospital response to suspected myocardial infarction. Lancet 1993;341:654-657.
- 53. Hackett TP, Cassem NH. Factors contributing to delay in responding to the signs and symptoms of acute myocardial infarction. Am J Cardiol 1969;24(5):651-658.
- 54. Penchansky R, Thomas JW. The concept of access: definition and relationship to consumer satisfaction. Med Care 1981;19(2):127-140.

- 55. American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force. Guidelines for the early management of patients with acute myocardial infarction. A report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on assessment of diagnostic and therapeutic cardiovascular procedures (subcommittee to develop guidelines for the early management of patients with acute myocardial infarction). J Am Coll Cardiol 1990;16(2):249-292.
- Wynn J. The role of hospital delivery systems in the treatment of patients with acute myocardial infarction: rural hospital setting. Heart Lung 1991;20(5 Pt 2):581-583.
- 57. National Heart Attack Alert Program
 Coordinating Committee Access to Care
 Subcommittee. Staffing and equipping emergency medical services systems: rapid identification and treatment of acute myocardial infarction. Am J Emerg Med 1995;13:58-66.
- 58. Gillum RF, Liu KC. Coronary heart disease mortality in United States blacks, 1940-1978: trends and unanswered questions. Am Heart J 1984;108(3 Pt 2):728-732.
- 59. Mitchell BD, Hazuda HP, Haffner SM, Patterson JK, Stern MP. Myocardial infarction in Mexican-Americans and non-Hispanic whites. The San Antonio Heart Study. Circulation 1991;83(1):45-51.
- 60. Blendon RJ, Aiken LH, Freeman HE, Corey CR. Access to medical care for black and white Americans. A matter of continuing concern. JAMA 1989;261(2):278-281.
- Haywood LJ. Coronary heart disease mortality/morbidity and risk in blacks. II: access to medical care. Am Heart J 1984;108(3 Pt 2):794-796.
- 62. Orr ST, Miller CA, James SA. Differences in use of health services by children according to race. Relative importance of cultural and system-related factors. Med Care 1984;22(9):848-853.

- 63. Gillum RF. Sudden coronary death in the United States 1980-1985. Circulation 1989;79(4):756-765.
- 64. Hossfeld G, Ryan M. HMOs and utilization of emergency medical services: a metropolitan survey. Ann Emerg Med 1989;18(4):374-377.
- 65. Alonzo AA. The impact of physician consultation on care-seeking during acute episodes of coronary heart disease. Med Care 1977;15(1):34-50.
- 66. Alonzo AA. The mobile coronary care unit and the decision to seek medical care during acute episodes of coronary artery disease. Med Care 1980;18(3):297-318.
- 67. Kereiakes DJ, Weaver D, Anderson JL, Feldman T, Gibler B, Aufderheide T, Williams DO, Martin LH, Anderson LC, Martin JS, McKendall G, Sherrid M, Greenberg H, Teichman SL. Time delays in the diagnosis and treatment of acute myocardial infarction: a tale of eight cities. Report from the Pre-hospital Study Group and the Cincinnati Heart Project. Am Heart J 1990;120:773-780.
- 68. Ho MT, Eisenberg MS, Litwin P, Schaeffer S, Damon S, Weaver WD, Hallstrom A, Larsen MP. Reasons chest pain patients delay or do not call 911. Circulation 1988;78(4):II-187.
- 69. Kerr HD. Access to emergency departments: a survey of HMO policies. Ann Emerg Med 1989;18(3):274-277.
- Hayward RA, Shapiro MF, Freeman HE, Corey CR. Inequities in health services among insured Americans. Do working-age adults have less access to medical care than the elderly? N Engl J Med 1988;318(23):1507-1512.
- 71. Manning WG, Newhouse JP, Duan N, Keeler E, Benjamin B, Leibowitz A, Marquis MS, Zwanziger J. Health Insurance and the Demand for Medical Care: Evidence From a Randomized Experiment. Santa Monica, CA: The RAND Corporation, February 1988.

- 72. Kellermann AL. Too sick to wait. JAMA 1991;266(8):1123-1125.
- 73. National Cholesterol Education Program. Second Report of the Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel II). National Institutes of Health. National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. NIH Publication No. 93-3095. September 1993.
- 74. Margolis JR, Kannel WS, Feinleib M, Dawber TR, McNamara PM. Clinical features of unrecognized myocardial infarction—silent and symptomatic. Eighteen year follow-up: the Framingham study. Am J Cardiol 1973;32(1):1-7.
- 75. Uretsky BF, Farquhar DS, Berezin AF, Hood WB Jr. Symptomatic myocardial infarction without chest pain: prevalence and clinical course. Am J Cardiol 1977;40(4):498-503.
- 76. Gillum RF, Fortmann SP, Prineas RJ, Kottke TE. International diagnostic criteria for acute myocardial infarction and stroke. Am Heart J 1984;108(1):150-158.
- 77. Raczynski JM, Taylor H, Cutter G, Hardin M, Rappaport N, Oberman A. Diagnoses, symptoms, and attribution of symptoms among black and white inpatients admitted for coronary heart disease. Am J Public Health 1994;84(6):951-956.
- Johnson JA, King KB. The influence of expectations about symptoms on delay in seeking treatment during myocardial infarction. Am J Crit Care 1995;4(1):29-35.
- 79. Braunwald E, Mark DB, Jones RH, Cheitlin MD, Fuster V, McCauley KM, Edwards C, Green LA, Mushlin AI, Swain JA, Smith EE, Cowan M, Rose GC, Concannon CA, Grines CL, Brown L, Lytle BW, Goldman L, Topol EJ, Willerson JT, Brown J, Archibald N. Unstable Angina: Diagnosis and Management. Clinical Practice Guideline Number 10. AHCPR Publication No. 94-0602. Rockville, MD: Agency for Health

- Care Policy and Research and the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, Public Health Service, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, March 1994.
- Weaver WD, Kennedy JW. Myocardial infarction—thrombolytic therapy in the prehospital setting. In: Fuster V, Varstraete M, Eds. Thrombosis in Cardiovascular Disorders. Philadelphia: WB Saunders Co., 1992; pp. 275-287.
- 81. Dracup K, McKinley S, Moser DK. Australian patients' delay in response to heart attack symptoms. Med J Aust 1997;166:233-236.
- 82. Mullen PD, Mains DA, Velez R. A meta-analysis of controlled trials of cardiac patient education. Patient Educ Counseling 1992;19:143-162.
- 83. Estey A, Musseau A, Keehn L. Comprehension levels of patients reading health information. Patient Educ Counseling 1991;18:165-169.
- 84. Fetro JV. Personal and Social Skills:
 Understanding and Integrating Competence
 Across Health Content. Santa Cruz, CA: ETR
 Associates, 1992.
- 85. Bandura A. A Social Learning Theory.

 Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press, 1971.
- 86. Bandura A. Influence of model reinforcement contingencies on the acquisition of imitative responses. J Pers Soc Psychol 1965;1:589-595.
- 87. American College of Cardiology. Approaches to the early triage of patients with chest discomfort. Cardiology 1990;19(8):4-5.
- 88. Ho MT, Eisenberg MS, Litwin PE, Schaeffer SM, Damon SK. Delay between onset of chest pain and seeking medical care: the effect of public education. Ann Emerg Med 1989;18:727-731.

- 89. Herlitz J, Hartford M, Blohm M, Karlson BW, Ekström L, Risenfors M, Wennerblom B, Luepker RV, Holmberg S. Effect of a media campaign on delay times and ambulance use in suspected acute myocardial infarction. Am J Cardiol 1989;64:90-93.
- Moses HW, Engelking N, Taylor GJ, Prabhaker C, Vallala M, Colliver JA, Silberman H, Schneider JA. Effect of a two-year public education campaign on reducing response time of patients with symptoms of acute myocardial infarction. Am J Cardiol 1991;68:249-251.
- 91. National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. NIH Guide. Community Intervention to Reduce Myocardial Infarction Delay. RFA: HL-93-16-P. National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. June 18, 1993.
- 92. Puleo PR, Meyer D, Wathen C, Tawa CB, Wheeler S, Hamburg RJ, Ali N, Obermueller SD, Triana JF, Zimmerman JL, Perryman MB, Roberts R. Use of a rapid assay of subforms of creatine kinase MB to diagnose or rule out acute myocardial infarction. N Engl J Med 1994;331(9):561-566.
- 93. Adams JE, Abendschein DR, Jaffe AS. Biochemical markers of myocardial injury; is MB creatine kinase the choice for the 1990's? Circulation 1993;88(2):750-763.
- 94. Hamm CW, Ravkilde J, Gerhardt W, Jorgensen P, Peheim E, Ljungdahl L, Goldmann B, Katus HA. The prognostic value of serum troponin T in unstable angina. N Engl J Med 1992;327(3): 146-150.
- Lee TH, Ting HH, Shammash JB, Soukup JP, Goldman L. Long-term survival of emergency department patients with acute chest pain. Am J Cardiol 1992;69(3):145-151.

- deBoer MJ, Hoorntje JCA, Ottervanger JP, Reiffers S, Suryapranata H, Zijlstra F. Immediate coronary angioplasty versus intravenous streptokinase in acute myocardial infarction: left ventricular ejection fraction, hospital mortality and reinfarction. J Am Coll Cardiol 1994;23(5):1004-1008.
- 97. Grines CL, Browne KF, Marco J, Rothbaum D, Stone GW, O'Keefe J, Overlie P, Donohue B, Chelliah N, Timmis GC. A comparison of immediate angioplasty with thrombolytic therapy for acute myocardial infarction. N Engl J Med 1993;328(10):673-679.
- 98. Ziljstra F, de Boer MJ, Hoorntje JCA, Reiffers S, Reiber JHC, Suryapranata H. A comparison of immediate coronary angioplasty with intravenous streptokinase in acute myocardial infarction. N Engl J Med 1993;328:680-684.
- 99. First International Study of Infarct Survival Collaborative Group (ISIS-1). Randomised trial of intravenous atenolol among 16,027 cases of suspected acute myocardial infarction: ISIS-1. Lancet 1986;2(8498):57-66.

Discrimination Prohibited: Under provisions of applicable public laws enacted by Congress since 1964, no person in the United States shall, on the grounds of race, color, national origin, handicap, or age, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity (or, on the basis of sex, with respect to any education program or activity) receiving Federal financial assistance. In addition, Executive Order 11141 prohibits discrimination on the basis of age by contractors and subcontractors in the performance of Federal contracts, and Executive Order 11246 states that no federally funded contractor may discriminate against any employee or applicant for employment because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin. Therefore, the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute must be operated in compliance with these laws and Executive Orders.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES

Public Health Service National Institutes of Health National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute NIH Publication No. 97-3787 September 1997